

Least p th Powers of Deviations

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1. INTRODUCTION

Let R denote the set of real numbers. If x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n is a finite sequence of points in R , then, as x ranges over R , $\sum_{k=1}^n (x_k - x)^2$ is minimal if and only if x is equal to the arithmetic mean of the numbers x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n . This simple observation is the point of departure in Gauss's important "method of least squares." Gauss also suggested using other powers of the deviations [11, pp. 5, 135].

Let X be a real Hilbert space or a finite-dimensional, real, rotund normed linear space (see below); let x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n be a finite sequence of points in X . Let $1 \leq p < \infty$. For every $x \in X$, set $S_p(x) = \sum_{k=1}^n \|x_k - x\|^p$ and $A_p(x) = \{(1/n) \sum_{k=1}^n \|x_k - x\|^p\}^{1/p}$. Also, let $l(p) = \inf\{S_p(x) : x \in X\}$ and $m(p) = \inf\{A_p(x) : x \in X\}$. Finally, let $m(\infty) = \inf\{A_\infty(x) : x \in X\}$, where, for every $x \in X$, $A_\infty(x) = \max\{\|x_k - x\| : 1 \leq k \leq n\}$. If $1 < p \leq \infty$, then, as we prove below, the infimum $m(p)$ is attained at a unique point $x(p) \in X$.

In this paper, the least p th powers of deviations are investigated; that is, $l(p)$ is studied. For certain technical reasons, it is convenient to consider an equivalent problem, namely, that of minimizing the p th order average, $A_p(x)$, of the distances $\|x_1 - x\|, \|x_2 - x\|, \dots, \|x_n - x\|$ from x to each of the points x_k . An additional advantage is that A_p admits a generalization in which the counting measure on $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ is replaced by a finite (nonnegative) Borel measure on a compact subset of X . We shall study various qualitative and quantitative aspects of $l(p)$, $m(p)$, and $x(p)$, including their behavior as $p \rightarrow 1+$ and as $p \rightarrow \infty$. For example, we prove that $m(p) \nearrow m(\infty)$ as $p \rightarrow \infty$. Moreover, convexity properties of S_p and A_p are determined.

If $X = R$ and n is odd, then, in the phraseology of statistics, $x(1)$ is the median of the sequence x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n [17, p. 85; 2, p. 32], $m(1)$ is the mean deviation from the median, $x(2)$ is the arithmetic mean [2, p. 36], and $m(2)$ is the standard deviation; further, $m(\infty)$ is associated with Laplace's method of minimal approximation, which he devised in 1799 [24, p. 259]. For a general value of p , $x(p)$ and $m(p)$ are the simultaneous maximum likelihood estimates of the location and scale parameters, respectively, based on an independent sample x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n taken from a parent population known to have a "modified normal distribution" in the sense of Subbotin [16, pp. 33–34]. Gentleman [12] studied the robust estimation of multivariate location by minimizing the sum of the p th powers of the deviations. Among other things, he devised an efficient algorithm for computing the estimator. Since he dealt with Euclidean distance raised to the p th power, his work is an elaboration of a special case of Huber's class of estimators. For a general X and a general p ($1 < p \leq \infty$), the point $x(p)$ locates a central position relative to the points x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n , and $m(p)$ measures the dispersion (variation, scattering) of the points.

If X is Euclidean 3-space R^3 , and if x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n are distinct points of a plane in R^3 , then, for each x in the plane, $S_2(x)$ is the moment of inertia about the axis in X perpendicular to the plane at x of the system consisting of unit masses at the points x_k (each x_k endowed with mass 1). By the discrete case of Steiner's transfer theorem of mechanics [7, p. 439], $x(2) = (1/n) \sum_{k=1}^n x_k$. Also, $A_2(x)$ is the radius of gyration of the system about that axis, and $m(2)$ is $A_2(x)$ for x , the center of mass of the system.

The case $p = 1$ exhibits certain irregularities that are not present when $1 < p < \infty$. For example, if x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n are real numbers, then $S_1(x)$ is minimum whenever x is a median of the x_k , but a median is generally not unique if n is even [2, pp. 32–34]. For this reason, we give the case $p = 1$ a special treatment. When $X = R^2$, $p = 1$, and $n = 3$, the minimization of $S_1(x)$ is a problem in geometric inequalities posed by Fermat [10, pp. 21–23] and solved (for arbitrary n) by Steiner [9, pp. 354–360]. (Melzak [19, p. 140] suggests that Cavalieri was the first to pose and solve the problem for $n = 3$.) For $n = 3$, the problem can be solved in a simple way both mechanically (by a contrivance using strings and weights [23, pp. 113–117]) and geometrically [19]; a limiting case of the modified isoperimetric problem also yields the result [9, p. 379].

In the general case, it turns out that the behavior of $l(p)$ for large values of p depends directly on $m(\infty)$. If $X = R$, then $x(\infty)$ is simply the midpoint of the convex hull of $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ and we can determine the limiting behavior of $l(p)$ completely. The limiting behavior of $x(p)$ in the case $X = R$ was determined by Jackson [15] in 1921.

We recall that a normed linear space is strictly normalized if $x \neq 0$,

$y \neq 0$, and $\|x + y\| = \|x\| + \|y\|$ imply that $y = \alpha x$ for some $\alpha > 0$ [1, pp. 11–12]. Finite-dimensional Euclidean spaces, inner-product spaces [4, p. 32; 25, p. 122], and the Lebesgue spaces $L_p(Y, \mathcal{A}, \mu)$, where (Y, \mathcal{A}, μ) is an arbitrary measure space and $1 < p < \infty$, are all strictly normalized [14, p. 192]; but $L_1(0, 1)$ is not. In particular, the finite-dimensional normed linear space l_p^n , consisting of all n -tuples $x = (\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n)$ of real numbers with the norm $\|x\|_p = \{\sum_{k=1}^n |\alpha_k|^p\}^{1/p}$, is strictly normalized if $1 < p < \infty$ and $n = 1, 2, \dots$. However, neither l_1^n nor l_∞^n , where

$$\|x\|_\infty = \max\{|\alpha_1|, |\alpha_2|, \dots, |\alpha_n|\},$$

is strictly normalized if $n = 2, 3, \dots$. For l_1^n , consider $x = (1, 0, 0, \dots, 0)$ and $y = (0, 1, 1, \dots, 1)$; as to l_∞^n , consider $x = (1, 1, 0, \dots, 0)$ and $y = (-1, 1, 0, \dots, 0)$. A normed linear space is strictly normalized if and only if its closed unit ball is strictly convex; in other words, a strictly normalized space is a rotund, or strictly convex, space [18, pp. 138–139; 25, p. 111]. A finite-dimensional normed linear space is rotund if and only if it is uniformly convex [25, pp. 109, 111].

2. THE MAIN THEOREMS

We are now ready to prove some theorems about $S_p(x)$, $A_p(x)$, $x(p)$, $l(p)$, and $m(p)$.

LEMMA 1. *Let x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n be a finite sequence of points in a real Hilbert space X ; let H be the convex hull of $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$; and let $x \in X - H$. Then H is compact [5, p. 138], there exists a unique point $x^* \in H$ such that $\|x - x^*\| = \inf\{\|x - y\| : y \in H\}$ [4, p. 68], and $\|y - x^*\| < \|y - x\|$ for each $y \in H$.*

Proof. It is known [22] that if a point z of a real Euclidean space E does not belong to the convex hull S^* of a nonempty compact subset S of E , then the point z^* of S^* closest in S^* to z is closer than z to every point of S .

Since H is contained in the Euclidean space spanned by x, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n , the desired conclusion follows from the result.

THEOREM 1. *Let X be a real Hilbert space or a finite-dimensional, real, rotund normed linear space; let x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n be a finite sequence of points in X ; and let $1 \leq p < \infty$. Then there exists a point $x(p) \in X$ such that $S_p(x(p)) = l(p)$, that is, such that $A_p(x(p)) = m(p)$. Moreover, if X is a Hilbert space or is two-dimensional, then each such $x(p)$ is in the convex hull of $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$. If $1 < p < \infty$, then $x(p)$ is unique.*

Proof. We exclude (as we may) the trivial case $x_1 = x_2 = \dots = x_n$. Once again, let H denote the convex hull of $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$. Also, assume $1 < p < \infty$.

First, assume that X is a Hilbert space.

If $x \in X - H$, then let x^* denote the unique point of H that is closest to x . According to Lemma 1, $\|y - x^*\| < \|y - x\|$ for each $y \in H$. Hence, $\sum_{k=1}^n \|x_k - x^*\|^p < \sum_{k=1}^n \|x_k - x\|^p$. This proves that it suffices to minimize $A_p(x)$ as x ranges over H . Since A_p is continuous on the compact set H , the infimum $m(p)$, of $A_p(x)$ as x ranges over X , is attained at a point $x(p) \in H$.

To prove that $x(p)$ is unique, suppose that $x', x'' \in X$ and that $m(p) = A_p(x') = A_p(x'')$. Then, by Minkowski's inequality,

$$\begin{aligned} & A_p((1/2)(x' + x'')) \\ &= \left\{ (1/n) \sum_{k=1}^n \|(1/2)(x_k - x') + (1/2)(x_k - x'')\|^p \right\}^{1/p} \\ &= (1/2)(1/n)^{1/p} \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^n \|x_k - x' + x_k - x''\|^p \right\}^{1/p} \\ &\leq (1/2)(1/n)^{1/p} \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^n (\|x_k - x'\| + \|x_k - x''\|)^p \right\}^{1/p} \\ &\leq (1/2)(1/n)^{1/p} \left[\left\{ \sum_{k=1}^n \|x_k - x'\|^p \right\}^{1/p} + \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^n \|x_k - x''\|^p \right\}^{1/p} \right] \\ &= (1/2)\{A_p(x') + A_p(x'')\} \\ &= m(p). \end{aligned}$$

Now, $m(p) \leq A_p((1/2)(x' + x''))$ by the definition of $m(p)$; hence, equality signs hold in the last three inequalities. Therefore, since X is strictly normalized, there exist, for $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$, nonnegative real numbers c_k and d_k such that $c_k + d_k > 0$ and $c_k(x_k - x') = d_k(x_k - x'')$. Since equality occurs in Minkowski's inequality, there exist nonnegative real numbers c and d such that $c + d > 0$ and $c\|x_k - x'\| = d\|x_k - x''\|$ for $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$. From this and $m(p) = A_p(x') = A_p(x'') > 0$, we conclude that $c = d > 0$ and for each k , $\|x_k - x'\| = \|x_k - x''\|$; thus, if $x_k - x' \neq 0$, then $c_k\|x_k - x'\| = d_k\|x_k - x''\| = d_k\|x_k - x'\|$, $c_k = d_k > 0$, $x_k - x' = x_k - x''$, and $x' = x''$.

Next, suppose that X is a finite-dimensional, real, rotund normed linear space. Let

$$\|x_m\| = \max\{\|x_k\|: 1 \leq k \leq n\},$$

and let $K = \{x \in X: \|x\| \leq 2\|x_m\|\}$. Since $A_p(0)$ and $A_p(x)$ are averages of distances, it is geometrically obvious that $A_p(0) < A_p(x)$ if $x \in X - K$. To prove this, note that if $x \in X - K$, then for each k , $\|x_k\| \leq \|x_m\| = 2\|x_m\| - \|x_m\| < \|x\| - \|x_k\| \leq \|x_k - x\|$. Hence,

$$\left\{ (1/n) \sum_{k=1}^n \|x_k\|^p \right\}^{1/p} < \left\{ (1/n) \sum_{k=1}^n \|x_k - x\|^p \right\}^{1/p},$$

that is, $A_p(0) < A_p(x)$ if $x \in X - K$.

Since K is a closed bounded subset of the finite-dimensional normed linear space X , K is compact. As A_p is continuous on the compact set K , there exists a point $x(p) \in K$ such that $A_p(x(p)) \leq A_p(x)$ whenever $x \in K$. In particular, $A_p(x(p)) \leq A_p(0) < A_p(x)$ whenever $x \in X - K$. Hence, $A_p(x(p)) = \inf\{A_p(x): x \in X\}$. The proof that $x(p)$ is unique is the same as that for the previous case.

Finally, suppose that X is a two-dimensional, real, rotund normed linear space. We want to prove that $x(p) \in H$. Let $A \subseteq X$ and $u, v \in X$; then v is said to be pointwise closer than u to A provided $\|v - a\| < \|u - a\|$ for each $a \in A$. If no point of X is pointwise closer than u to A , then u is called a closest point to A . Phelps [20], proved that if A is a bounded subset of X , then the closure of the convex hull of A is the set of all closest points to A . Let $A = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$. Since H is closed, H is the closure of the convex hull of A . Thus, H is equal to the set of all closest points to $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$. Suppose that $x(p) \in X - H$. (The existence and uniqueness of $x(p)$ have already been established.) Then $x(p)$ is not a closest point to $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$; consequently, there exists a point y , which need not be in H , that is pointwise closer than $x(p)$ to $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$. Hence, $\|y - x_k\| < \|x(p) - x_k\|$ for $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$; and

$$\begin{aligned} A_p(y) &= \left\{ (1/n) \sum_{k=1}^n \|x_k - y\|^p \right\}^{1/p} < \left\{ (1/n) \sum_{k=1}^n \|x_k - x(p)\|^p \right\}^{1/p} \\ &= A_p(x(p)) = \inf\{A_p(x): x \in X\}, \end{aligned}$$

a contradiction. The case $p = 1$ is left to the reader.

THEOREM 2. *Let X be a real Hilbert space or a finite-dimensional, real, rotund normed linear space; and let x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n be a finite sequence of points in X . Then there exists a unique point $x(\infty) \in X$ such that $A_\infty(x(\infty)) = m(\infty)$. Moreover, if X is a Hilbert space or is two-dimensional, then $x(\infty)$ is in the convex hull of $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$.*

Proof. We exclude (as we may) the trivial case $x_1 = x_2 = \dots = x_n$.

Except for uniqueness, our conclusions can be proved in the same way as the corresponding conclusions of Theorem 1.

To prove that $x(\infty)$ is unique, suppose that $x', x'' \in X$ and that $A_\infty(x') = A_\infty(x'') = m(\infty)$. Then there exists an integer j such that $A_\infty((1/2)(x' + x'')) = \|(1/2)(x_j - x') + (1/2)(x_j - x'')\| \leq (1/2)\|x_j - x'\| + (1/2)\|x_j - x''\| \leq (1/2)m(\infty) + (1/2)m(\infty) = m(\infty)$. From the definition of $m(\infty)$, we also have $m(\infty) \leq A_\infty((1/2)(x' + x''))$. Hence, equality signs hold in the last three inequalities. Consequently, $\|x_j - x'\| = m(\infty) = \|x_j - x''\|$. If $x_j - x' = 0$ or $x_j - x'' = 0$, then $\max\{\|x_k - x(\infty)\|: 1 \leq k \leq n\} = m(\infty) = 0$, which implies that $x_1 = x_2 = \dots = x_n$, contrary to hypothesis. Hence, $x_j - x' \neq 0$ and $x_j - x'' \neq 0$. Since X is rotund, $x_j - x' = \alpha(x_j - x'')$ for some $\alpha > 0$. From $\|x_j - x'\| = \|x_j - x''\| > 0$, we conclude that $\alpha = 1$. Hence, $x_j - x' = x_j - x''$, that is, $x' = x''$, as desired.

THEOREM 3. *Let x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n be a finite sequence of points in a real, rotund normed linear space X ; and let $1 < p < \infty$. Then A_p is continuous and convex in X . If $x_1 = x_2 = \dots = x_n$ does not hold, then A_p is strictly convex in X . If $x_1 = x_2 = \dots = x_n$, then A_p is strictly convex on each line not containing x_1 and convex and concave on each closed ray issuing from x_1 .*

Proof. Clearly, A_p is continuous. Assume that $x, y \in X$, $x \neq y$, $a > 0$, $b > 0$, and $a + b = 1$. To prove that A_p is convex in X , note that

$$\begin{aligned} A_p(ax + by) &= \left\{ (1/n) \sum_{k=1}^n \|x_k - (ax + by)\|^p \right\}^{1/p} \\ &= \left\{ (1/n) \sum_{k=1}^n \|a(x_k - x) + b(x_k - y)\|^p \right\}^{1/p} \\ &\leq \left\{ (1/n) \sum_{k=1}^n (\|a(x_k - x)\| + \|b(x_k - y)\|)^p \right\}^{1/p} \\ &\leq \left\{ (1/n) \sum_{k=1}^n \|a(x_k - x)\|^p \right\}^{1/p} + \left\{ (1/n) \sum_{k=1}^n \|b(x_k - y)\|^p \right\}^{1/p} \\ &= aA_p(x) + bA_p(y). \end{aligned}$$

Next, let us study strict convexity. Suppose that $A_p(ax + by) = aA_p(x) + bA_p(y)$. Then equality must hold in the last two inequalities. Since X is rotund, we conclude that for each k , there exist nonnegative real numbers, c_k and d_k , such that $c_k + d_k > 0$ and $c_k a(x_k - x) = d_k b(x_k - y)$. Since equality occurs in Minkowski's inequality, there exist nonnegative

real numbers c and d such that $c + d > 0$ and $c \|a(x_k - x)\| = d \|b(x_k - y)\|$ for $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$.

Suppose that $1 \leq k \leq n$ and $x_k - x = 0$. Then from $c \|a(x_k - x)\| = d \|b(x_k - y)\|$ we conclude that $0 = d \|b(x_k - y)\|$. Hence, $0 = db(x_k - y)$ and $ca(x_k - x) = db(x_k - y)$.

Next, suppose that $1 \leq k \leq n$ and $x_k - x \neq 0$. Then $d_k \neq 0$. Indeed, if $d_k = 0$, then $c_k a(x_k - x) = d_k b(x_k - y)$ yields $c_k a(x_k - x) = 0$. But $c_k > 0$, since $c_k + d_k > 0$. Thus, $x_k - x = 0$, a contradiction. Likewise, $d \neq 0$. From $c_k a(x_k - x) = d_k b(x_k - y)$ and $c \|a(x_k - x)\| = d \|b(x_k - y)\|$, we conclude that $c/d = \|b(x_k - y)\|/\|a(x_k - x)\| = c_k/d_k$. Thus, $ca(x_k - x) = (dc_k/d_k) a(x_k - x) = (d/d_k) c_k a(x_k - x) = (d/d_k) d_k b(x_k - y) = db(x_k - y)$. Hence, $ca(x_k - x) = db(x_k - y)$ for $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$.

Next, let us prove that $ca - db \neq 0$. Suppose that $ca = db$ and recall that $a > 0$ and $b > 0$. If $c = 0$, then $d > 0$ and $ca = db$ yields $0 = db > 0$. Hence, $c > 0$ and $ca = db > 0$. Thus, $x_k - x = x_k - y$, that is, $x = y$, a contradiction.

Since $ca - db \neq 0$, $x_k = (cax - db y)/(ca - db)$ for $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$. Consequently, if $x_1 = x_2 = \dots = x_n$ does not hold, then $A_p(ax + by) < aA_p(x) + bA_p(y)$, that is, A_p is strictly convex.

Suppose that $x_1 = x_2 = \dots = x_n$. If $A_p(ax + by) = aA_p(x) + bA_p(y)$, then, as noted above, $x_1 = (cax - db y)/(ca - db)$. This implies that x and y are on a closed ray issuing from x_1 , since $x = x_1 + \{db/(ca)\}(y - x_1)$, where $db/(ca) \geq 0$ if $c \neq 0$ and $y = x_1 + \{ca/(db)\}(x - x_1)$, where $ca/(db) \geq 0$, if $d \neq 0$. Consequently, if x and y are on a line not containing x_1 , then $A_p(ax + by) < aA_p(x) + bA_p(y)$.

If $x_1 = x_2 = \dots = x_n$ and x and y are on a closed ray issuing from x_1 , then one can easily verify that $A_p(ax + by) = \|x_1 - (ax + by)\| = \|a(x_1 - x) + b(x_1 - y)\| = a\|x_1 - x\| + b\|x_1 - y\| = aA_p(x) + bA_p(y)$, as desired.

As the reader can see, implicit in the reasoning above is a necessary and sufficient condition for $A_p(ax + by) = aA_p(x) + bA_p(y)$ to hold.

Note that the uniqueness portion of Theorem 1 follows at once from Theorem 3.

COROLLARY. *Let x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n be a finite sequence of points in a real, rotund normed linear space X ; and let $1 < p < \infty$. Then S_p is continuous and is strictly convex in X .*

Proof. First, assume that $x_1 = x_2 = \dots = x_n$ does not hold. Then, by Theorem 3, A_p is strictly convex in X . Moreover, $S_p(x) = n\{A_p(x)\}^p$ for each $x \in X$. Since one can prove that a strictly increasing convex function of a strictly convex function is strictly convex, it follows that S_p is strictly convex in X .

Next, assume that $x_1 = x_2 = \cdots = x_n$. Then $S_p(x) = n \|x_1 - x\|^p$ for each $x \in X$. Suppose that $x, y \in X$, $x \neq y$, $a > 0$, $b > 0$, and $a + b = 1$. Then $\|x_1 - (ax + by)\| \leq a \|x_1 - x\| + b \|x_1 - y\|$, and, as one can prove easily by the previous arguments, if equality holds, x and y are on a closed ray issuing from x_1 . Moreover,

$$\{a \|x_1 - x\| + b \|x_1 - y\|\}^p \leq a \|x_1 - x\|^p + b \|x_1 - y\|^p,$$

and if equality holds, $\|x_1 - x\| = \|x_1 - y\|$. The last assertion follows from a familiar property of power means [13, p. 26], or from the strict convexity of the function t^p on $[0, \infty)$. Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} S_p(ax + by) &= n \|x_1 - (ax + by)\|^p \\ &\leq n \{a \|x_1 - x\| + b \|x_1 - y\|\}^p \\ &\leq n \{a \|x_1 - x\|^p + b \|x_1 - y\|^p\} \\ &= a S_p(x) + b S_p(y), \end{aligned}$$

which proves that S_p is convex in X . If $S_p(ax + by) = a S_p(x) + b S_p(y)$, then x and y are on a closed ray issuing from x_1 and are equidistant from x_1 , which implies that $x = y$. Since $x \neq y$, S_p is strictly convex in X .

Next, we observe that A_∞ need not be strictly convex in X even if $x_1 = x_2 = \cdots = x_n$ does not hold. Indeed, if $X = R^2$, $n = 2$, $x_1 = (0, 0)$, and $x_2 = (1, 0)$, then A_∞ is convex and concave when restricted to the closed ray issuing from the point $(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$ and passing through the point $(1, 1)$. However, A_∞ is strictly convex on each line that does not pass through x_1 or x_2 . More generally, we have:

THEOREM 4. *Let x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n be a finite sequence of points in a real, rotund normed linear space X . Then A_∞ is continuous and convex in X . If $x_1 = x_2 = \cdots = x_n$ does not hold, then A_∞ is strictly convex on each line containing no x_k . If $x_1 = x_2 = \cdots = x_n$, then $A_\infty = A_p$ for each p , $1 < p < \infty$, and Theorem 3 applies.*

Proof. Clearly, A_∞ is continuous, since the maximum of a finite sequence of continuous functions is continuous.

Suppose that $x, y \in X$, $x \neq y$, $a > 0$, $b > 0$, and $a + b = 1$. Then, for some j ,

$$\begin{aligned} A_\infty(ax + by) &= \|x_j - (ax + by)\| \\ &= \|a(x_j - x) + b(x_j - y)\| \\ &\leq a \|x_j - x\| + b \|x_j - y\| \\ &\leq a A_\infty(x) + b A_\infty(y). \end{aligned}$$

Hence, A_∞ is convex in X .

Assume that $x_1 = x_2 = \dots = x_n$ does not hold. If $A_\infty(ax + by) = aA_\infty(x) + bA_\infty(y)$, then equality holds in the last two inequalities. Hence, (i) $\|x_j - x\| = A_\infty(x)$, (ii) $\|x_j - y\| = A_\infty(y)$, and by a familiar argument, (iii) x and y are points on a closed ray issuing from x_j . If the line through x and y contains no x_k , then (iii) fails; hence, $A_\infty(ax + by) < aA_\infty(x) + bA_\infty(y)$. This proves that A_∞ is strictly convex on each line containing no x_k .

Conversely, as one can verify, if for some j , (i), (ii), and (iii) hold, then $A_\infty(ax + by) = aA_\infty(x) + bA_\infty(y)$.

Since the pointwise limit of a sequence of convex functions is convex, the convexity of A_∞ follows from that of A_p ($1 < p < \infty$) and the following result. Note that strict convexity need not be preserved by uniform convergence, as illustrated by the behavior of A_p .

THEOREM 5. *Let X be a real Hilbert space or a finite-dimensional, real, rotund normed linear space; and let x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n be a finite sequence of points in X . Then S_1 is continuous and convex in X . If $x, y \in X$, $x \neq y$, $a > 0$, $b > 0$, and $a + b = 1$, then $S_1(ax + by) = aS_1(x) + bS_1(y)$ if and only if each x_k lies on the line through x and y but not on the open line segment joining x and y . If the x_k 's are not collinear, S_1 is strictly convex in X and attains its infimum, $l(1)$, at a unique point, $x(1)$. If the x_k 's are collinear and are relabeled with the subscripts $1, 2, \dots, n$ so that their linear order corresponds to the order of their subscripts, then $\theta = \{x \in X: S_1(x) = l(1)\}$ is the closed line segment joining $x_{n/2}$ to $x_{(n/2)+1}$ if n is even and is $\{x_{(n+1)/2}\}$ if n is odd. Thus, θ consists of a single point when n is odd and also when n is even and $x_{n/2} = x_{(n/2)+1}$.*

Proof. Suppose that $x, y \in X$, $x \neq y$, $a > 0$, $b > 0$, and $a + b = 1$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} S_1(ax + by) &= \sum_{k=1}^n \|a(x_k - x) + b(x_k - y)\| \\ &\leq \sum_{k=1}^n \{\|a(x_k - x)\| + \|b(x_k - y)\|\} \\ &= aS_1(x) + bS_1(y). \end{aligned}$$

This proves that S_1 is convex in X . If equality holds, then for each k , $\|a(x_k - x) + b(x_k - y)\| = \|a(x_k - x)\| + \|b(x_k - y)\|$. As we have observed before, the last equality is valid if and only if x and y are on a closed ray issuing from x_k . Hence, $S_1(ax + by) = aS_1(x) + bS_1(y)$ if and only if each x_k lies on the line through x and y but not on the open line segment joining x and y . In particular, S_1 is strictly convex if the x_k 's are not collinear. Strict convexity, in turn, implies that $\theta = \{x \in X: S_1(x) = l(1)\}$ contains precisely one point. (In virtue of Theorem 1, θ is nonempty.)

Next, suppose all the x_k 's lie on some line L . If θ contains at least two points, then, by the first part of the theorem, it follows readily that $\theta \subseteq L$; but conceivably θ may consist of a single point off L . We now prove that always $\theta \subseteq L$. If X is a Hilbert space, then this certainly is the case, since, according to Theorem 1, $\theta \subseteq H \subseteq L$, where H is the convex hull of $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$.

Suppose that X is finite-dimensional and that u and v are distinct points of L . Furthermore, suppose that $\theta \cap L = \emptyset$. Then $\theta = \{x(1)\}$, $x(1) \notin L$. Let L_1 be the line through the origin, 0, and $v - u$, and consider the two-dimensional subspace, X_1 , of X containing $x(1) - u$ and $v - u$. Each $x_k - u$ belongs to L_1 , but $x(1) - u$ does not. Hence, $x(1) - u$ does not belong to the convex hull of $\{x_1 - u, x_2 - u, \dots, x_n - u\}$. Since $\sum_{k=1}^n \|x - (x_k - u)\|$ attains its infimum in X_1 at $x(1) - u$, this contradicts Theorem 1. Thus, $\theta \subseteq L$.

We omit the somewhat tedious proof of the last sentence of Theorem 5, since it is patterned after the proof of the minimum property of a median of a finite sequence of real numbers (cf. [2, pp. 32-34]).

THEOREM 6. *Let x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n be a finite sequence of points in a real normed linear space X . Then, for each $x \in X$, $A_p(x)$ is increasing for $1 \leq p \leq \infty$ and $\lim_{p \rightarrow \infty} A_p(x) = A_\infty(x)$. Moreover, the convergence is uniform on each compact subset of X .*

Proof. The second sentence of Theorem 6 follows immediately from well-known properties of means (cf. [13, pp. 15; 26; 3, pp. 16-17]). The third follows from Dini's theorem [14, p. 205].

THEOREM 7. *Let X be a real Hilbert space or a finite-dimensional, real, rotund normed linear space; and let x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n be a finite sequence of points in X . Then $m(p)$ is continuous and increasing on $[1, \infty]$. In particular, $m(p) \rightarrow m(\infty)$ as $p \rightarrow \infty$.*

Preliminary Remark. Theorems 6 and 7 imply that

$$\max_{p \in [1, \infty]} \min_{x \in X} A_p(x) = \min_{x \in X} \max_{p \in [1, \infty]} A_p(x).$$

Proof of Theorem 7. Suppose that $1 \leq p_1 < p_2 \leq \infty$. Then $m(p_1) = \inf\{A_{p_1}(x) : x \in X\} \leq A_{p_1}(x(p_2)) \leq A_{p_2}(x(p_2)) = m(p_2)$ by Theorems 1 and 6.

Concerning continuity, let $I = [1, b]$ where $1 < b < \infty$. From the proofs of Theorems 1 and 2, we know that there exists a compact set C (take C to be the convex hull of $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ if X is a Hilbert space and to be $\{x \in X : \|x\| \leq 2A_\infty(0)\}$ otherwise) such that $m(p) = \min\{A_p(x) : x \in C\} =$

$A_p(x(p))$ for some $x(p) \in C$ whenever $1 \leq p \leq \infty$. (We do not claim that $x(1)$ is unique.)

Since $A_p(x)$ is continuous on the compact metric space $I \times C$, it is uniformly continuous there. Hence, given $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a $\delta > 0$ such that $|A_{p'}(x) - A_{p''}(x)| < \epsilon$ if $p', p'' \in I$, $|p' - p''| < \delta$, and $x \in C$. For such p' and p'' ,

$$\begin{aligned} -\epsilon &< A_{p'}(x(p')) - A_{p''}(x(p')) \leq A_{p'}(x(p')) - A_{p''}(x(p'')) \\ &\leq A_{p'}(x(p'')) - A_{p''}(x(p'')) < \epsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, $|m(p') - m(p'')| = |A_{p'}(x(p')) - A_{p''}(x(p''))| < \epsilon$. Therefore, $m(p)$ is uniformly continuous in I . (For the convenience of the reader, we have repeated something here that is essentially well known (see [21, pp. 101, 295].)

Finally, let us prove that $m(p) \rightarrow m(\infty)$ as $p \rightarrow \infty$. According to Theorem 6, A_p converges uniformly on C to A_∞ as $p \rightarrow \infty$. Suppose that $\epsilon > 0$. Then there exists a $p_\epsilon \in (1, \infty)$ such that $0 \leq A_\infty(x) - A_p(x) < \epsilon$ if $x \in C$ and $p_\epsilon < p < \infty$. Hence, $m(\infty) = A_\infty(x(\infty)) \leq A_\infty(x(p)) < A_p(x(p)) + \epsilon = m(p) + \epsilon$ if $p_\epsilon < p < \infty$. Thus, $0 \leq m(\infty) - m(p) < \epsilon$ if $p_\epsilon < p < \infty$; consequently, $m(p) \rightarrow m(\infty)$ as $p \rightarrow \infty$.

THEOREM 8. *Let X be a real Hilbert space or a finite-dimensional, real, rotund normed linear space; and let x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n be a finite sequence of points in X . Then $x(p)$ is continuous on $(1, \infty]$ and in particular, $x(p) \rightarrow x(\infty)$ as $p \rightarrow \infty$. Moreover, $x(p)$ converges to a limit, $x(1)$, as $p \rightarrow 1+$ and $A_1(x(1)) = m(1)$.*

Proof. Suppose that $x(p)$ is not continuous at some point $p \in (1, \infty)$. Let C be the compact set introduced in the proof of Theorem 7. Then there exists a point $x' \in C$ and a sequence of points p_1, p_2, p_3, \dots in $(1, \infty)$ such that $x' \neq x(p)$, $p_k \rightarrow p$, and $x(p_k) \rightarrow x'$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$. Now, $m(p_k) \rightarrow m(p) = A_p(x(p))$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$, by Theorem 7. Moreover, $m(p_k) = A_{p_k}(x(p_k)) \rightarrow A_p(x')$ by the continuity of $A_p(x)$ on $[1, \infty) \times X$. Thus, $A_p(x') = A_p(x(p))$. According to Theorem 1, $x(p) = x'$, a contradiction.

Next, consider the case $p = 1$. If the x_k 's are not collinear, then, according to Theorem 5, A_1 attains its infimum at a unique point of X , that is, $\theta = \{x \in X: A_1(x) = m(1)\}$ contains exactly one point, $x(1)$. In this case, one proves that $x(p) \rightarrow x(1)$ as $p \rightarrow 1+$ by the same argument that was used above.

Now, assume the x_k 's all lie on some line L and let u, v be distinct points of L . According to Theorem 5, $\theta \subseteq L$. If $1 < p < \infty$, then the proof of Theorem 5, with θ replaced by $\{x(p)\}$, shows that $x(p) \in L$. For $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$, let r_k be the real number satisfying $x_k = u + r_k(v - u)$ and for each $p > 1$,

let $r(p)$ be the real number satisfying $x(p) = u + r(p)(v - u)$. Let $p > 1$. If r is an arbitrary real number, then

$$\begin{aligned} \|v - u\|^p \sum_{k=1}^n |r_k - r(p)|^p &= \sum_{k=1}^n \|x_k - x(p)\|^p \\ &\leq \sum_{k=1}^n \|x_k - \{u + r(v - u)\}\|^p \\ &= \|v - u\|^p \sum_{k=1}^n |r_k - r|^p, \end{aligned}$$

so that $r(p)$ minimizes $\sum_{k=1}^n |r_k - r|^p$.

By Jackson's theorem [15], $r(p)$ converges to some (finite) number, $r(1)$, as $p \rightarrow 1+$ and $r(1)$ is a median of r_1, r_2, \dots, r_n . Hence, $\lim_{p \rightarrow 1+} x(p) = u + r(1)(v - u)$; we denote this limit $x(1)$.

To prove that $A_1(x(1)) = m(1)$, first recall that $\sum_{k=1}^n |r_k - r(1)| \leq \sum_{k=1}^n |r_k - r|$ for each real number r , since $r(1)$ is a median of r_1, r_2, \dots, r_n . This implies that $\sum_{k=1}^n \|x_k - x(1)\| \leq \sum_{k=1}^n \|x_k - x\|$ for each $x \in L$. Since $\theta \cap L \neq \emptyset$, there exists a point $x' \in L$ such that $\sum_{k=1}^n \|x_k - x'\| \leq \sum_{k=1}^n \|x_k - x\|$ for each $x \in X$. Hence, $\sum_{k=1}^n \|x_k - x(1)\| \leq \sum_{k=1}^n \|x_k - x\|$ for each $x \in X$, as desired. This conclusion also follows, upon letting $p \rightarrow 1+$, from $\sum_{k=1}^n \|x_k - x(p)\|^p \leq \sum_{k=1}^n \|x_k - x\|^p$, holding for each $x \in X$.

Finally, let us prove that $x(p) \rightarrow x(\infty)$ as $p \rightarrow \infty$. Suppose not. Then, since $\{x(p); 1 < p \leq \infty\}$ is contained in a compact subset of X , there exist a sequence, p_1, p_2, p_3, \dots , of real numbers and a point $x' \in X$ such that $x' \neq x(\infty)$, $p_k \rightarrow \infty$, and $x(p_k) \rightarrow x'$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$. According to Theorem 7, $m(p_k) \rightarrow m(\infty) = A_\infty(x(\infty))$. Moreover, $m(p_k) = A_{p_k}(x(p_k)) \rightarrow A_\infty(x')$. To prove this last assertion, we first note that $A_\infty(x') - A_\infty(x(p_k)) \rightarrow 0$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$, since $x(p_k) \rightarrow x'$ and A_∞ is continuous. Next, we note that $A_\infty(x(p_k)) - A_{p_k}(x(p_k)) \rightarrow 0$, since $x(p_k) \in C$ for each k , and $A_p(x) \rightarrow A_\infty(x)$, uniformly on C , as $p \rightarrow \infty$. (C is the compact set defined in the proof of Theorem 7.) Consequently,

$$\begin{aligned} A_\infty(x') - A_{p_k}(x(p_k)) \\ = \{A_\infty(x') - A_\infty(x(p_k))\} + \{A_\infty(x(p_k)) - A_{p_k}(x(p_k))\} \rightarrow 0 \end{aligned}$$

as $k \rightarrow \infty$. Hence, $A_\infty(x(\infty)) = A_\infty(x')$. According to Theorem 2, $x(\infty) = x'$, a contradiction.

LEMMA 2. *Let X be a real Hilbert space or a finite-dimensional, real, rotund normed linear space; and let x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n be a finite sequence of points in X .*

Then, if $1 < p_1 < p_2 < \infty$, we have

$$m(\infty) \leq \{l(p_2)\}^{1/p_2} \leq \{l(p_1)\}^{1/p_1} \leq n^{1/p_1} m(\infty).$$

Proof. Since $m(p) \leq m(\infty)$ for each $p \in [1, \infty]$, according to Theorem 7, and since $l(p) = n\{A_p(x(p))\}^p = n\{m(p)\}^p$, we infer that $l(p_1) \leq n\{m(\infty)\}^{p_1}$ if $1 < p_1 < \infty$. Hence, $\{l(p_1)\}^{1/p_1} \leq n^{1/p_1} m(\infty)$ if $1 < p_1 < \infty$.

Suppose that $1 < p_1 < p_2 < \infty$. Then $l(p_2) \leq \sum_{k=1}^n \|x_k - x(p_1)\|^{p_2}$. Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} \{l(p_2)\}^{1/p_2} &\leq \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^n \|x_k - x(p_1)\|^{p_2} \right\}^{1/p_2} \\ &\leq \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^n \|x_k - x(p_1)\|^{p_1} \right\}^{1/p_1} \\ &= \{l(p_1)\}^{1/p_1} \end{aligned}$$

(cf. [13, p. 28; 3, p. 18].) According to a familiar fact from the theory of inequalities, $\max\{\|x_k - x\| : 1 \leq k \leq n\} \leq \{\sum_{k=1}^n \|x_k - x\|^{p_2}\}^{1/p_2}$ for each $x \in X$ (cf. [13, pp. 28–29; 3, p. 18].) Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} m(\infty) &\leq \max\{\|x_k - x(p_2)\| : 1 \leq k \leq n\} \\ &\leq \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^n \|x_k - x(p_2)\|^{p_2} \right\}^{1/p_2} \\ &= \{l(p_2)\}^{1/p_2}, \end{aligned}$$

as desired.

THEOREM 9. *Let X be a real Hilbert space or a finite-dimensional, real, rotund normed linear space; and let x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n be a finite sequence of points (at least two of which are distinct) in X . If $m(\infty) < 1$, then $\lim_{p \rightarrow \infty} l(p) = 0$; if $m(\infty) > 1$, then $\lim_{p \rightarrow \infty} l(p) = \infty$; and if $m(\infty) = 1$, then $1 \leq l(p) \leq n$ for each $p \in (1, \infty)$. If $l(p') < 1$ for some $p' \in (1, \infty)$, then $l(p)$ is strictly decreasing on $[p', \infty)$; and if $l(p'') > n$ for some $p'' \in (1, \infty)$, then $l(p)$ is strictly increasing on $[p'', \infty)$. In particular, if $m(\infty) \neq 1$, then $l(p)$ is strictly monotonic for all sufficiently large values of p .*

Proof. From the first and last inequalities in the last line of Lemma 2, we conclude that $\{m(\infty)\}^p \leq l(p) \leq n\{m(\infty)\}^p$ if $p \in (1, \infty)$. Consequently, if $m(\infty) < 1$, then $l(p) \rightarrow 0$ as $p \rightarrow \infty$; if $m(\infty) > 1$, then $l(p) \rightarrow \infty$ as $p \rightarrow \infty$; and if $m(\infty) = 1$, then $1 \leq l(p) \leq n$ for each $p \in (1, \infty)$.

Next, assume that $l(p') < 1$ for some $p' \in (1, \infty)$. Then, according to Lemma 2, $l(p) \leq \{l(p')\}^{p/p'}$ if $p' \leq p < \infty$. Consequently, if $p' \leq p_1 < p_2 < \infty$, then $l(p_2) \leq \{l(p_1)\}^{p_2/p_1} = l(p_1)\{l(p_1)\}^{(p_2-p_1)/p_1} < l(p_1)$.

Finally, assume that $n < l(p'')$ for some $p'' \in (1, \infty)$. Then

$$1 < \{(1/n) l(p'')\}^{1/p''} = m(p'').$$

If $p'' \leq p_1 < p_2 < \infty$, then $1 < m(p'') \leq m(p_1) \leq m(p_2)$, according to Theorem 7. Hence, $l(p_1) = n\{m(p_1)\}^{p_1} \leq n\{m(p_2)\}^{p_1} < n\{m(p_2)\}^{p_2} = l(p_2)$.

COROLLARY. Assume the first sentence of Theorem 9. As usual, let $m(2)$ denote the "standard deviation" $\{(1/n) \sum_{k=1}^n \|x_k - x(2)\|^2\}^{1/2}$. If $m(2) < n^{-1/2}$, then $l(p)$ is strictly decreasing on $[2, \infty)$; and if $1 < m(2)$, then $l(p)$ is strictly increasing on $[2, \infty)$. Moreover, if $m(\infty) < 1$, then $l(p)$ is strictly decreasing on $[(\log n)/\log(1/m(\infty)), \infty)$ and if $m(\infty) > 1$, then $l(p)$ is strictly increasing on $[(\log n)/\log m(\infty), \infty)$.

Proof. The first two assertions follow from Theorem 9 and the fact that $m(2) = \{(1/n) l(2)\}^{1/2}$.

Suppose that $m(\infty) < 1$. From Lemma 2 we know that $l(p) \leq n\{m(\infty)\}^p$ if $p \in (1, \infty)$. Thus, if $n\{m(\infty)\}^p < 1$, then $l(p) < 1$. But $n\{m(\infty)\}^p < 1$ if and only if $(\log n)/\log(1/m(\infty)) < p$. The monotonicity of $l(p)$ follows from Theorem 9.

Suppose that $m(\infty) > 1$. From Lemma 2 we know that $\{m(\infty)\}^p \leq l(p)$ if $p \in (1, \infty)$. Thus, if $n < \{m(\infty)\}^p$, then $n < l(p)$. But $n < \{m(\infty)\}^p$ if and only if $(\log n)/\log m(\infty) < p$. The monotonicity of $l(p)$ follows from Theorem 9.

THEOREM 10. Let X be a real Hilbert space or a finite-dimensional, real, rotund normed linear space; and let x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n be a finite sequence of points in X . Then $\{l(p)\}^{1/p}$ is monotonically decreasing on $(1, \infty)$ to the limit $m(\infty)$. Moreover, $0 \leq \{l(p)\}^{1/p} - m(\infty) \leq (n^{1/p} - 1) m(\infty) \leq ((n-1)/p) m(\infty)$ for each $p \in (1, \infty)$.

Proof. All of the assertions except the last inequality follow immediately from Lemma 2. The fact that $n^{1/p} - 1 \leq (n-1)/p$ whenever $p \in (1, \infty)$ follows from [13, p. 40].

Next, we estimate how fast $m(p) \rightarrow m(\infty)$ as $p \rightarrow \infty$. It turns out that $p\{m(\infty) - m(p)\}$ remains bounded as $p \rightarrow \infty$. The following result sharpens a portion of Theorem 7 by adding quantitative information. It also gives complementary inequalities (cf. [8]).

THEOREM 11. Let X be a real Hilbert space or a finite-dimensional, real, rotund normed linear space; and let x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n be a finite sequence of points (at least two of which are distinct) in X . Then

$$n^{-1/p_1}/n^{-1/p_2} \leq m(p_1)/m(p_2) \leq 1$$

if $1 < p_1 < p_2 < \infty$. Moreover,

$$0 \leq m(\infty) - m(p) \leq m(\infty)\{1 - n^{-1/p}\} \leq ((\log n)/p) m(\infty)$$

if $p \in (1, \infty)$.

Proof. Using the fact that $\{l(p)\}^{1/p} = n^{1/p}m(p)$ if $p \in (0, \infty)$, we conclude from Lemma 2 that $m(\infty) \leq n^{1/p_2}m(p_2) \leq n^{1/p_1}m(p_1) \leq n^{1/p_1}m(\infty)$ if $1 < p_1 < p_2 < \infty$. From $n^{1/p_2}m(p_2) \leq n^{1/p_1}m(p_1)$ we infer that

$$n^{-1/p_1}/n^{-1/p_2} \leq m(p_1)/m(p_2).$$

The fact that $m(p_1)/m(p_2) \leq 1$ follows from Theorem 7. From $m(\infty) \leq n^{1/p_1}m(p_1) \leq n^{1/p_1}m(\infty)$ we see that

$$0 \leq m(\infty) - m(p_1) \leq m(\infty) - n^{-1/p_1}m(\infty) = m(\infty)\{1 - n^{-1/p_1}\}$$

if $p_1 \in (1, \infty)$.

To prove that $1 - n^{-1/p} \leq (\log n)/p$, apply the mean-value theorem to the function n^{-x} on the interval $[0, 1/p]$.

3. SOME SPECIALIZED RESULTS

In this section we restrict our attention to the case $X = R$. We give new proofs of some previous results, and we prove some new ones.

Suppose that $1 < p < \infty$, and let $f(x) = |x|^p$ for each real number x . Then

$$f'(x) = \begin{cases} p|x|^{p-1} & \text{if } x \geq 0 \\ -p|x|^{p-1} & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases} = p_X|x|^{p-2}$$

(meaning 0 when $x = 0$). Clearly, f' is strictly increasing on R .

Assume throughout this section that $x_1 \leq x_2 \leq \dots \leq x_n$ and that $x_1 \neq x_n$. We are interested in $S_p(x) = \sum_{k=1}^n |x_k - x|^p = \sum_{k=1}^n f(x - x_k)$. Since $S_p'(x) = \sum_{k=1}^n f'(x - x_k) = \sum_{k=1}^n p(x - x_k)|x_k - x|^{p-2}$, it is obvious that S_p' is strictly increasing on R , $S_p'(x) < 0$ if $x \leq x_1$, and $S_p'(x) > 0$ if $x \geq x_n$.

This proves that, for each $p \in (1, \infty)$, S_p is strictly convex in R , that S_p attains its infimum over R at a unique point $x(p)$, and that $x(p)$ is in the convex hull of $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$.

Next, let us prove that $\lim_{p \rightarrow \infty} x(p) = x(\infty) = (x_1 + x_n)/2 = a$. Let r be the smallest k with $x_k > x_1$. Let $0 < \epsilon < (x_n - x_1)/2$. For $k = r, r+1, \dots, n$, let $m_k = \max\{|x - x_k| : |x - x_1| : a + \epsilon \leq x \leq x_n\}$.

Note that each m_k is < 1 . Now, for each $p \in (2, \infty)$ and for each real number $x \neq x_1$,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{p} S_p'(x) &= \sum_{k=1}^n (x - x_k) |x_k - x|^{p-2} \\ &= (x - x_1) |x_1 - x|^{p-2} \left\{ r - 1 + \sum_{k=r}^n \frac{x - x_k}{x - x_1} \left| \frac{x_k - x}{x_1 - x} \right|^{p-2} \right\}. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, for each $x \in [a + \epsilon, x_n]$,

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \frac{1}{p} S_p'(x) \right| &\geq |x - x_1| |x_1 - x|^{p-2} \left\{ r - 1 - \left| \sum_{k=r}^n \frac{x - x_k}{x - x_1} \left| \frac{x_k - x}{x_1 - x} \right|^{p-2} \right| \right\} \\ &\geq |x_1 - x|^{p-1} \left\{ r - 1 - \sum_{k=r}^n \left| \frac{x_k - x}{x_1 - x} \right|^{p-1} \right\} \\ &\geq |x_1 - x|^{p-1} \left\{ r - 1 - \sum_{k=r}^n m_k^{p-1} \right\} \\ &> 0 \end{aligned}$$

for all (finite) $p \geq$ some (finite) p_0 , independent of x . Hence, $x(p) < a + \epsilon$ if $p \geq p_0$. Similarly, there exists a (finite) p_0' such that $x(p) > a - \epsilon$ if $\infty > p \geq p_0'$. Hence, $x(p) \rightarrow a$ as $p \rightarrow \infty$.

Next, let us prove that $\lim_{p \rightarrow \infty} m(p) = m(\infty) = (x_n - x_1)/2$. As above, let $a = (x_1 + x_n)/2$. Also, let $\epsilon > 0$. Since $\lim_{p \rightarrow \infty} x(p) = a$, there exists a real number, $N > 1$, such that $a - \epsilon < x(p) < a + \epsilon$ if $p \geq N$. Clearly, $|x(p) - x_k| < [(x_n - x_1)/2] + \epsilon$ if $1 \leq k \leq n$ and $p \geq N$. Hence, $A_p(x(p)) < [(x_n - x_1)/2] + \epsilon$ if $p \geq N$.

On the other hand, $|x_1 - x(p)| \geq (x_n - x_1)/2$ or $|x_n - x(p)| \geq (x_n - x_1)/2$ must hold for each $p > 1$. Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} m(p) &= \left\{ \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n |x_k - x(p)|^p \right\}^{1/p} \\ &\geq \left(\frac{1}{n} \right)^{1/p} \cdot \frac{x_n - x_1}{2} \end{aligned}$$

for each $p \in (1, \infty)$. Thus,

$$\left(\frac{1}{n} \right)^{1/p} \cdot \frac{x_n - x_1}{2} \leq m(p) \leq \frac{x_n - x_1}{2} + \epsilon$$

if $p \geq N$. Since $(1/n)^{1/p} \rightarrow 1$ as $p \rightarrow \infty$, it follows that $[(x_n - x_1)/2] - \epsilon \leq m(p) \leq [(x_n - x_1)/2] + \epsilon$ if $p \geq N_\epsilon \geq N$. Thus, $\lim_{p \rightarrow \infty} m(p) = m(\infty)$.

If $m(\infty) = 1$, then by Theorem 9, $1 \leq l(p) \leq n$ for each $p \in (1, \infty)$. We now prove that, if $X = R$ and $m(\infty) = 1$, then $l(p)$ converges as $p \rightarrow \infty$; and we determine the limit.

THEOREM 12. *Suppose that x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n are real numbers and s and t are positive integers such that $x_1 = x_2 = \dots = x_s < x_{s+1} \leq x_{s+2} \leq \dots \leq x_{n-t-1} \leq x_{n-t} < x_{n-t+1} = \dots = x_n = x_1 + 2$. (Included is the case $x_1 = x_2 = \dots = x_s < x_{s+1} = \dots = x_n = x_1 + 2$, with $t = n - s$.) Then $\lim_{p \rightarrow \infty} l(p) = 2\{st\}^{1/2}$.*

Proof. First, let us consider the above simple case. Clearly, we can assume $x_1 = 0$, $x_n = 2$. Then, if $1 < p < \infty$ and $0 \leq x \leq 2$, $S_p(x) = \sum_{k=1}^n |x_k - x|^p = sx^p + t(2-x)^p$ and $S_p'(x) = psx^{p-1} - pt(2-x)^{p-1}$. Clearly, $S_p'(x) = 0$ if and only if $x = x(p) = 2/\{1 + (s/t)^{1/(p-1)}\}$. (Note that $x(p) \rightarrow 1 = x(\infty)$ as $p \rightarrow \infty$, as it should.) Set $\alpha = s/t$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} l(p) &= S_p(x(p)) \\ &= \alpha t \{x(p)\}^p + t \{2 - x(p)\}^p \\ &= t(\alpha + \alpha^{p/(p-1)}) \left\{ \frac{2}{1 + \alpha^{1/(p-1)}} \right\}^p \left\{ \frac{2}{1 + \alpha^{1/(p-1)}} \right\}^{p-1}. \end{aligned}$$

Next, we note that

$$\lim_{p \rightarrow \infty} \left\{ \frac{2}{1 + \alpha^{1/(p-1)}} \right\}^{p-1} = \alpha^{-1/2},$$

since

$$\left\{ \frac{2}{1 + \alpha^{1/(p-1)}} \right\}^{p-1} = \exp\{(p-1) \log[2\{1 + \alpha^{1/(p-1)}\}^{-1}]\}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{p \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\log[2\{1 + \alpha^{1/(p-1)}\}^{-1}]}{(1/(p-1))} &= \lim_{q \rightarrow 0+} q^{-1} \log \frac{2}{1 + \alpha^q} \\ &= \left[\frac{d}{dq} \log \frac{2}{1 + \alpha^q} \right]_{q=0} \\ &= -\frac{1}{2} \log \alpha \\ &= \log(\alpha^{-1/2}). \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $\lim_{p \rightarrow \infty} l(p) = t(2\alpha) \alpha^{-1/2} = 2\{st\}^{1/2}$.

Next, suppose $s < n - t$. For each $p \in (1, \infty)$, let $\hat{x}(p)$ be the value of x for which $\hat{S}_p(x) = \sum_{k=1}^s |x_k - x|^p + \sum_{k=n-t+1}^n |x_k - x|^p$ is minimal, and let $\hat{l}(p) = \hat{S}_p(\hat{x}(p))$.

Then, for each $p \in (1, \infty)$,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \hat{l}(p) &\leq \hat{S}_p(x(p)) \\
 &\leq \sum_{k=1}^n |x_k - x(p)|^p \\
 &= l(p) \\
 &\leq \sum_{k=1}^n |x_k - \hat{x}(p)|^p \\
 &= \hat{S}_p(\hat{x}(p)) + \sum_{s < k < n-t+1} |x_k - \hat{x}(p)|^p \\
 &= \hat{l}(p) + \sum_{s < k < n-t+1} |x_k - x(p)|^p.
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $\hat{l}(p) \leq l(p) \leq \hat{l}(p) + \sum_{s < k < n-t+1} |x_k - \hat{x}(p)|^p$ for each $p \in (1, \infty)$. The last sum approaches 0 as $p \rightarrow \infty$, since $\hat{x}(p) \rightarrow (x_1 + x_n)/2$, $|x_k - \hat{x}(p)| \rightarrow |x_k - [(x_1 + x_n)/2]| < 1$, and hence $|x_k - \hat{x}(p)|^p \rightarrow 0$ if $s < k < n - t + 1$. Moreover, as proved above, $\hat{l}(p) \rightarrow 2\{st\}^{1/2}$ as $p \rightarrow \infty$. Finally, since $l(p)$ is bounded by two quantities approaching the common limit $2\{st\}^{1/2}$, we conclude that $l(p) \rightarrow 2\{st\}^{1/2}$ as $p \rightarrow \infty$.

4. CONCLUSION

Scattered throughout the literature are numerous results that are loosely related to this paper. For example, the Fermat–Steiner problem for a tetrahedron, that is, the case when $X = R^3$, $n = 4$, $p = 1$, and x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4 are not coplaner, has been treated (cf. [9, p. 359]). For other related results, consult [6].

For the sake of completeness, we now prove the following simple result.

THEOREM 13. *Let x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n be a finite sequence of points in a real inner product space X . Then $S_2(x) = \sum_{k=1}^n \|x_k - x\|^2$ is minimal if and only if $x = x(2) = (1/n) \sum_{k=1}^n x_k$.*

Proof. Let $m = (1/n) \sum_{k=1}^n x_k$, and let the sign \langle, \rangle denote the inner product in X . Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 \|x_k - x\|^2 &= \langle x_k - x, x_k - x \rangle \\
 &= \langle (x_k - m) + (m - x), (x_k - m) + (m - x) \rangle \\
 &= \langle x_k - m, x_k - m \rangle + 2\langle x_k - m, m - x \rangle + \langle m - x, m - x \rangle \\
 &= \|x_k - m\|^2 + 2\langle x_k - m, m - x \rangle + \|m - x\|^2.
 \end{aligned}$$

Addition yields $\sum_{k=1}^n \|x_k - x\|^2 = \sum_{k=1}^n \|x_k - m\|^2 + n \|m - x\|^2$, which is a "generalization" of the Steiner transfer theorem [7, p. 439]. The desired conclusion is obvious.

Theorem 13 does not hold for real, rotund normed linear spaces in general. Consider the space l_3^2 (see Section 1). Let $x_1 = (0, 0)$, $x_2 = (1, 0)$, and $x_3 = (0, 2)$. Then $x(2) \neq (\frac{1}{3}) \sum_{k=1}^3 x_k = (\frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3})$. To prove this, it suffices to show that

$$\frac{\partial F}{\partial u} \left(\frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3} \right) \neq 0,$$

where

$$F(u, v) = \{|u|^3 + |v|^3\}^{2/3} + \{|u-1|^3 + |v|^3\}^{2/3} + \{|u|^3 + |v-2|^3\}^{2/3}.$$

Now, if $0 < u < 1$ and $0 < v < 2$, then

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial F}{\partial u}(u, v) &= \frac{2}{3} \{u^3 + v^3\}^{-1/3} 3u^2 + \frac{2}{3} \{(1-u)^3 + v^3\}^{-1/3} 3(1-u)^2 (-1) \\ &\quad + \frac{2}{3} \{u^3 + (2-v)^3\}^{-1/3} 3u^2. \end{aligned}$$

Hence,

$$\frac{\partial F}{\partial u} \left(\frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3} \right) = \frac{2}{3} \left\{ \frac{1}{9^{1/3}} - \frac{2}{2^{1/3}} + \frac{1}{65^{1/3}} \right\} < 0.$$

One might want to extend the concepts and results of this paper from the case of a finite sequence x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n to a continuous setting. To avoid tedium, we confine our attention to only one such result.

THEOREM 14. *Let μ be a nondegenerate, nonnegative real Borel measure on a compact subset $K \neq \emptyset$ of R^m where $m \geq 1$ and let H denote the convex hull of K . Then, for each $p \in (1, \infty)$, there exists a unique point $x(p)$, in R^m , such that*

$$\int_K \|u - x(p)\|^p d\mu(u) = \inf \left\{ \int_K \|u - x\|^p d\mu(u) : x \in R^m \right\}$$

and $x(p) \in H$.

Proof. Let $p \in (1, \infty)$ and recall that H is compact (cf. [18, p. 21; 5, p. 140]). If $x \in R^m - H$, let x^* denote the unique point of H that is closest to x . Then [22] $\|u - x^*\| < \|u - x\|$ for each $u \in K$. Hence, $\int_K \|u - x^*\|^p d\mu(u) < \int_K \|u - x\|^p d\mu(u)$. This proves that it suffices to minimize

$$A_p(x) = \left\{ \frac{1}{\mu(K)} \int_K \|u - x\|^p d\mu(u) \right\}^{1/p}$$

as x ranges over H . Since A_p is continuous (to prove continuity, use Lebesgue's dominated convergence theorem) on the compact set H , the infimum, $m(p)$, is attained at a point $x(p) \in H$. To prove that $x(p)$ is unique, suppose that $x', x'' \in R^m$ and that $m(p) = A_p(x') = A_p(x'')$. Then, by Minkowski's inequality,

$$\begin{aligned} A_p\left(\frac{1}{2}(x' + x'')\right) &= \left\{ \frac{1}{\mu(K)} \int_K \left\| \frac{1}{2}(u - x') + \frac{1}{2}(u - x'') \right\|^p d\mu(u) \right\}^{1/p} \\ &\leq \frac{1}{2} \left\{ \frac{1}{\mu(K)} \int_K (\|u - x'\| + \|u - x''\|)^p d\mu(u) \right\}^{1/p} \\ &\leq \frac{1}{2} \left[\left\{ \frac{1}{\mu(K)} \int_K \|u - x'\|^p d\mu(u) \right\}^{1/p} \right. \\ &\quad \left. + \left\{ \frac{1}{\mu(K)} \int_K \|u - x''\|^p d\mu(u) \right\}^{1/p} \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \{A_p(x') + A_p(x'')\} \\ &= m(p). \end{aligned}$$

Now, $m(p) \leq A_p((1/2)(x' + x''))$ by the definition of $m(p)$; hence, equality signs hold in the last three inequalities. Therefore, there exist nonnegative real functions $c(u)$ and $d(u)$ defined on K such that $c(u) + d(u) > 0$ and $c(u)(u - x') = d(u)(u - x'') \mu$ a.e. on K . Since equality occurs in Minkowski's inequality, there exist nonnegative real numbers c and d such that $c + d > 0$ and $c\|u - x'\| = d\|u - x''\| \mu$ a.e. on K . Assume (as we may) that μ is not concentrated on a subset of K containing precisely one point. Then the last equality and $m(p) = A_p(x') = A_p(x'') > 0$ imply that $c = d > 0$ and that $\|u - x'\| = \|u - x''\| \mu$ a.e. on K . Since $c(u)(u - x') = d(u)(u - x'')$ μ a.e. on K and $\mu(K) > 0$, there exists a point $u' \in K$ such that $\|u' - x'\| = \|u' - x''\|$ and $c(u')(u' - x') = d(u')(u' - x'')$. If $\|u' - x'\| = \|u' - x''\| = 0$, then $x' = u' = x''$, as desired. If $\|u' - x'\| = \|u' - x''\| \neq 0$, then $c(u')(u' - x') = d(u')(u' - x'')$ yields $c(u')\|u' - x'\| = d(u')\|u' - x''\|$, $c(u') = d(u') > 0$, $u' - x' = u' - x''$, and $x' = x''$, as desired.

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